# GROUP ACTIONS ON TREES 

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## 1. Introduction

For this paper, we will define a (non-oriented) graph $\Gamma$ to be a pair $\Gamma=(V, E)$, where $V=\operatorname{vert}(\Gamma)$ is a set of vertices, and $E=\operatorname{edge}(\Gamma) \subseteq$ $V \times V / S_{2}$ is a set of unordered pairs, known as edges between them. Two vertices, $v, v^{\prime} \in V$ are considered adjacent if $\left(v, v^{\prime}\right) \in E$, if there is an edge between them. An oriented graph has edge set $E=\operatorname{edge}(\Gamma) \subseteq$ $V \times V$, ordered pairs. For an edge $v=\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ in an oriented graph, $o(v)=v_{1}$ is the origin of $v$ and $t(v)=v_{2}$ is the terminus of $v$. Unless noted, all graphs in this paper are non-oriented.

A group $G$ acts on a set $X$ if there is a map

$$
\begin{array}{r}
G \times X \rightarrow X \\
(g, x) \mapsto g x
\end{array}
$$

such that the following are true:
a) For $e$ the identity of $G, e x=x$
b) For $h, g \in G, x \in X, h(g x)=(h g) x$.

A group $G$ acts on a graph $(V, E)$ if it acts on $V$ and $E$ in a compatible way; i.e. if $g v_{1}=v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $g v_{2}=v_{2}^{\prime}$ then $g\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)=\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$. Of particular interest will be graphs that are trees. We will explore their properties, and the behavior of group actions on trees, looking especially at free groups and groups that act freely. All of the theorems and many of the proofs in this paper can be found in [1]. Our ultimate result will be to prove the following theorem:

Theorem 1.1. A group is free if and only if there exists a tree on which it acts freely.

## 2. Some Needed Definitions

First I will define a few terms used to describe graphs, and introduce a few basic propositions.

Definition 2.1. Let Path $_{n}$ be a graph with $\mathrm{n}+1$ vertices, $\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ such that for $0 \leq i \leq n$, vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{i+1}$ are adjacent and $v_{i} \neq v_{i+1}$. A path of length n in a graph $\Gamma$ is a morphism from Path $_{n}$ to $\Gamma$.

Definition 2.2. Let Circuit $_{n}$ be a graph with n vertices $\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}\right\}$. Similarly to Path $_{n}$, for $0 \leq i \leq n$, vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{i+1}$ are adjacent. Additionally, $v_{n-1}$ is adjacent to $v_{0}$. A circuit of length n in a graph $\Gamma$ is an injective morphism from Circuit $_{n}$ to $\Gamma$.

Definition 2.3. A tree is a connected non-empty graph with no circuits.
Definition 2.4. A geodesic is a path on a tree with edges $\left\{e_{0}, \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$ where for $0 \leq i \leq n, e_{i} \neq e_{i+1}$.
Proposition 2.5. For $v_{1}, v_{2}$ vertices in a tree $\Gamma, v_{1} \neq v_{2}$, there is exactly one geodesic from $v_{1}$ to $v_{2}$ and it is an injective path.
Proof. $\Gamma$ is connected, so there exists a geodesic between $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ (a path exists between $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, which trivially implies a geodesic). Let $f:$ Path $_{n} \rightarrow \Gamma$ be a geodesic from $v_{1}$ to $v_{2}$ such that $f(0)=v_{1}$ and $f(n)=v_{2}$. If for $i \neq j, f(i)=f(j)$, then $\{f(i), \ldots, f(j)\}$ and the edges between them form a circuit, which is a contradiction because $\Gamma$ is a tree. Therefore for $0 \leq i<j \leq n, f(i) \neq f(j)$, and so $f$ is injective.

To show the geodesic is unique, assume there are two geodesics from $v_{1}$ to $v_{2}, f$ and $g$, with edges $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\}$. If $y_{n} \neq x_{n}$, then there is a path from $v_{1}$ to $v_{1}$, namely $f$ followed by $h^{-1}$. This contradicts the fact that $\Gamma$ is a tree, so $x_{n}=y_{n}$, and inductively all the other edges are equal. This makes the two paths equal, so the geodesic is indeed unique.
Definition 2.6. Let $G$ be a group, and $S$ be a subset of $G$. Then we will define $\Gamma(G, S)$, the Cayley graph of $(G, S)$. The vertices of $\Gamma$ are the elements of $G$, and two vertices $g$ and $h$ are adjacent if $\exists s \in S$ such that $g s=h$.

We have the following proposition.
Proposition 2.7. Let $\Gamma=\Gamma(G, S)$ be the graph defined by a group $G$ and a subset $S$ of $G$. For $\Gamma$ to be connected it is necessary and sufficient that $S$ generate $G$.
Proof. If $S$ generates $G, \forall g, h \in G, \exists s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} \in S \cup S^{-1}$ such that $g s_{1} \ldots s_{n}=h$. This implies there is a path from $g$ to $h$, and therefore $\Gamma$ is connected.

If $\Gamma$ is connected, $\forall g \in G, \exists$ a path from $e$ to $h$ for $e$ the identity in $G$. This implies $\exists s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} \in S \cup S^{-1}$ such that $e s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}=g$, but then $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}=g$, which implies $S$ generates $G$.
Definition 2.8. The distance on a tree from one vertex to another is the number of edges in the geodesic connecting them.

Definition 2.9. Let $\Gamma$ be a tree. Let $v$ be a vertex of $\Gamma$. Let $X_{n}$ be the set of vertices at distance n from $P$. Each $x_{n} \in X_{n}$ is adjacent to exactly one $x_{n-1} \in X_{n-1}$. Define a map $f_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n-1}$ such that $x_{n}$ is adjacent to $f_{n}\left(x_{n}\right)$. Define an inverse system starting at $v$ to be the set of these functions $\left\{f_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

It is important to note that each $f_{n}$ is only well-defined if $\Gamma$ is a tree, hence the following proposition.
Proposition 2.10. If a graph can be represented by an inverse system, it is a tree.

Proof. Take a graph $\Gamma$ that can be represented by an inverse system $\left\{f_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ starting at $v$. Assume $\Gamma$ contains a cycle with vertices $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}=v_{1}\right\}$. Without loss of generality, we can assume $v=v_{1}$. Then $v_{2} \in X_{1}, v_{3} \in X_{2}, \ldots, v_{n} \in X_{n-1}$. But there is no function in $\left\{f_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ that maps elements of $X_{n-1}$ to elements of $X_{0}$ unless $n-1=1$, which implies the cycle has only two vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$. This means that in the circuit, the edge $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ is traversed twice, which implies the circuit is not embedded in $\Gamma$, a contradiction. Therefore $\Gamma$ is a tree.

## 3. An Exploration of Subtrees

When examining a graph, it is often useful to look at subgraphs that are trees.

Proposition 3.1. Every graph $\Gamma$ has a maximal subtree.
Proof. Consider the set of subtrees of $\Gamma$. This set has a partial ordering via inclusion. Let $\left\{T_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a chain of trees. If the $\bigcup_{i \in I} T_{i}$ is not a tree, then it contains a circuit. But a circuit is finite, so $\exists i \in I$ such that $T_{i}$ contains a circuit, which is a contradiction. Therefore $\bigcup_{i \in I} T_{i}$ is a tree in $\left\{T_{i}\right\}_{I \in I}$, and so each chain is bounded by its union. By Zorn's lemma, the set of subtrees of $\Gamma$ has a maximal element, which we will call the maximal tree of $\Gamma$.
Proposition 3.2. The maximal tree $\Lambda$ of a connected non-empty graph $\Gamma$ contains all the vertices of $\Gamma$.
Proof. Assume for contradiction that $\Lambda$ does not contain a vertex $v$ of $\Gamma$. Then by connectedness, we can assume without loss of generality that there is an edge $e$ from $v$ to a vertex $x$ of $\Lambda$. Because $v$ is not a vertex of $\Lambda$, there exist no other paths from vertices of $\Lambda$ to $v$. Therefore, adjoining $v$ and $e$ to $\Lambda$ creates a new graph that is still a tree, but that contains more vertices and edges than $\Lambda$. This contradicts the maximal quality of $\Lambda$. Therefore, $\Lambda$ contains all the vertices of $\Gamma$.

For any graph $\Gamma$, let $s=|\operatorname{vert}(\Gamma)|$, and $a=|\operatorname{edge}(\Gamma)|$.
Proposition 3.3. For a connected graph $\Gamma$ with a finite number of vertices, $a \geq s-1$, and $a=s-1 \Longleftrightarrow \Gamma$ is a tree.

Proof. Induction can be used to show equality holds for any tree $\Gamma$. If $\Gamma$ has one vertex, then $a=0$ and $s=1$, so the claim holds. Assume for a tree $\Gamma$ with n vertices that $a=s-1$. Consider a tree $\Omega$ with $n+1$ vertices, and assume all vertices of $\Omega$ are adjacent to at least two other vertices. Let $v_{1} \in \operatorname{vert}(\Omega)$, then $v_{1}$ is adjacent to a vertex $v_{2}$. But $v_{2}$ is adjacent to a vertex $v_{3}$ (which is not equal to $v_{1}$, since it is adjacent to two other vertices and $\Omega$ is a tree). By induction, it is clear there is a path of length n that touches all $n+1$ vertices once. But $v_{n+1}$ is also adjacent to two vertices, so it must be adjacent to a vertex that already appears in the path, which implies the existence of a cycle. Therefore there is at least one vertex (call it a terminal vertex) that is only adjacent to one other vertex. By removing a terminal vertex and the edge that connects it to $\Omega$ we obtain a tree with $n$ vertices, for which $a=s-1$. Since for $\Omega$ we increase a and s by one each, the claim holds for $n+1$ vertices. Therefore, if $\Gamma$ is a tree, $a=s-1$.

Consider now any graph $\Gamma$. The claim is trivial for an empty graph, so assume $\Gamma$ is not empty. Then by Proposition $3.1 \Gamma$ has a maximal subtree $\Gamma^{\prime}$, which by Proposition 3.2 contains all the vertices of $\Gamma$. So $s(\Gamma)=s\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$, and $a(\Gamma)=a\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$ only if $\Gamma=\Gamma^{\prime}$. We have already shown that if $\Gamma$ is a tree, $a=s-1$, so the second half of the proposition is complete.

Since $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is a tree, $a\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)=s\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)-1=s(\Gamma)-1$, which implies $a(\Gamma)=s(\Gamma)-1+a(\Gamma)-a\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$. And since $a(\Gamma) \geq a\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right), a(\Gamma)-a\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right) \geq 0$, we have $a(\Gamma) \geq s(\Gamma)-1$.

We can define the contraction of a graph that takes each tree in a graph and sucks it into a single point, giving a new much simpler graph that can reveal properties of the original graph.

Definition 3.4. Given a connected graph $\Gamma$, take $\Lambda$ to be a subgraph that is the union of disjoint trees $\Lambda_{i}(i \in I)$. Define $\Gamma / \Lambda$, a contraction of $\Gamma$, in the following way. The set of vertices of $\Gamma / \Lambda$ is the quotient of the set of vertices of $\Gamma$ under the equivalence relation $\sim$ so that $\forall x, x^{\prime} \in \Lambda_{i}, x \sim x^{\prime}$. The set edge $(\Gamma / \Lambda)=$ edge $(\Gamma) \backslash$ edge $(\Lambda)$. Two vertices are adjacent in $\Gamma / \Lambda$ if they have representatives which are adjacent in $\Gamma$ but not in $\Lambda_{i}$ for any $i \in I$.

Proposition 3.5. $\Gamma$ is a tree $\Longleftrightarrow \Gamma / \Lambda$ is one.

Proof. Assume $\Gamma$ is not a tree. Recall that $a(\Gamma)=|\operatorname{edge}(\Gamma)|$ and $s(\Gamma)=$ $|\operatorname{vert}(\Gamma)|$. Then by Proposition 3.3 and the above arguments about contractions, the following holds:

$$
a(\Gamma)>s(\Gamma)-1
$$

But $a(\Gamma)=a(\Gamma / \Lambda)+a(\Lambda)$ and $s(\Gamma)=s(\Gamma / \Lambda)+\sum_{i \in I}\left(s\left(\Lambda_{i}\right)-1\right)$ and for each tree $\Lambda_{i}, a\left(\Lambda_{i}\right)=s\left(\Lambda_{i}\right)-1$. So, the following holds:

$$
\begin{gathered}
a(\Gamma / \Lambda)+\sum_{i \in I} a\left(\Lambda_{i}\right)>s(\Gamma / \Lambda)+\sum_{i \in I}\left(s\left(\Lambda_{i}\right)-1\right)-1 \\
a(\Gamma / \Lambda)>s(\Gamma / \Lambda)-1
\end{gathered}
$$

Which implies $\Gamma / \Lambda$ is not a tree.
A similar logic can be applied to show that $\Gamma / \Lambda$ is a tree if $\Gamma$ is a tree.

## 4. Trees of Representatives

If you have a graph that is acted on by a group, one way of understanding the group action is to take a tree of representatives. This section will explain this process, and an interesting result. First, if we have a group $G$ which acts on a graph $X$, we will define the quotient graph $X^{\prime}=X / G$ in the following way. The vertices of $X^{\prime}$ are the equivalence classes of vertices of $X$ under the equivalence relation that for $x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{vert}(X), x \sim x^{\prime}$ if $\exists g \in G$ such that $g x=x^{\prime}$. Then the set edge $X^{\prime}$ Is defined similarly. Furthermore, the equivalence class of $\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)$ connects equivalence classes of $y$ and $y^{\prime}$ by an edge. This gives us the following proposition.

Proposition 4.1. Let $X$ be a connected graph acted on by a group $G$. Then for every subtree $T^{\prime}$ of $X / G \exists$ a subtree of $X$ that maps isomorphically to $T^{\prime}$ under the canonical projection map $f$.
Proof. We are going to assume that $\nexists$ a subtree of $X$ with the desired quality. Take $\Omega$ to be the set of subtrees of $X$ that project injectively into $T^{\prime}$ under $f$. Then $\Omega$ has a partially ordering via the inclusion relation. Take a chain of subtrees $\left\{T_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ in $\Omega$. As in the proof of Proposition 3.1, $\bigcup_{i \in I} T_{i}$ is a tree. All the vertices and edges of $\bigcup_{i \in I} T_{i}$ map under $f$ to $T^{\prime}$, because they are all in $T_{i}$ for some $i \in I$. If the map is not injective, then for some $i \in I, T_{i}$ does not map injectively into $T^{\prime}$. This implies each chain is bounded by its union. By Zorn's lemma, $\Omega$ has a maximal element $T_{x}$. Let $T_{x}^{\prime}$ be its image in $T^{\prime}$.

If no subtree of $X$ maps isomorphically to $T^{\prime}$ under $f$, then $T_{x}^{\prime} \neq T^{\prime}$. $T_{x}$ projects injectively into $T^{\prime}$, so $\left|\operatorname{vert}\left(T_{x}^{\prime}\right)\right| \leq\left|\operatorname{vert}\left(T^{\prime}\right)\right|$. Therefore, because both are connected, $\exists\left(y_{1}^{\prime}, y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$, an edge in $T^{\prime}$ that is not an
edge in $T_{x}^{\prime}$. Because $T^{\prime}$ is connected, we can assume without loss of generality that $y_{1}^{\prime}$ is a vertex of $T_{x}^{\prime}$. If $y_{2}^{\prime}$ is also a vertex of $T_{x}^{\prime}$, then because of connectedness, there is a path $P_{n}$ from $y_{1}^{\prime}$ to $y_{2}^{\prime}$ in $T_{x}^{\prime}$ that does not include the edge $\left(y_{1}^{\prime}, y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$. But then $P_{n}$ is also a path in $T^{\prime}$, which means if $\left(y_{1}^{\prime}, y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ is added to the beginning of $P_{n}$, we have a circuit in $T^{\prime}$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $y_{2}^{\prime}$ is not a vertex of $T_{x}^{\prime}$. Because $\left(y_{1}^{\prime}, y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ is an edge of $T^{\prime}$, there is an edge $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ of $X$ that maps to it in $X / G$. For any $g \in G,\left(g y_{1}, g y_{2}\right)$ also maps to $\left(y_{1}^{\prime}, y_{2}^{\prime}\right)$. So, without loss of generality, we can assume $y_{1}$ is a vertex of $T_{x}$. Then $y_{2}$ cannot be a vertex of $T_{x}$, or $y_{2}^{\prime}$ would be a vertex of $T_{x}^{\prime}$. Adjoin the vertex $y_{1}$ and the edge $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ to $T_{x}$ to create $T^{*}$, which maps injectively into $T^{\prime}$. We have created a subtree of $X$ that maps injectively into $T^{\prime}$, but is strictly larger than $T_{x}$; this contradicts maximality of $T_{x}$.
Definition 4.2. Suppose a group $G$ acts on a graph $X$. Take $T^{\prime}$ to be a maximal tree in $X / G$. A tree of representatives of $X / G$ is any subtree $T$ of $X$ that maps isomorphically to $T^{\prime}$ under the canonical projection map.

## 5. The Graph of a Free Group

Proposition 5.1. Let $G$ be a group, $S \subseteq G$, and $X=\Gamma(G, S)$ be the graph defined by $G$ and $S$. Then the following are equivalent:
a) $X$ is a tree.
b) $G$ is a free group with basis $S$.

Proof. First we will prove that if $G$ is a free group with basis $S$ then $X$ is a tree.

If $G$ is a free group, every $g \in G$ can be written uniquely in reduced form

$$
g=s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{n}^{\epsilon_{n}} s_{i} \in S, \epsilon \in\{ \pm 1\}
$$

where for $0 \leq i<n$ if $\epsilon_{i}=-\epsilon_{i+1}, s_{i} \neq s_{i+1}$. Trivially, assume $s_{0}=e$ for $e$ the identity in $G$. Define the length of the element $g$ to be $n$, and then let $X_{n}$ be the set of elements of $G$ of length $n$. If $g \in X_{n}$, then $g$ is adjacent to $g^{\prime}=s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{n-1}^{\epsilon_{n-1}}$, which is a unique element of $X_{n-1}$. Because $G$ is a free group, $g^{\prime}$ is the only element of $X_{n-1}$ that $g$ is adjacent to. Define functions

$$
f_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n-1}
$$

so that $g \mapsto g^{\prime}$ where $g^{\prime} s_{n}^{\epsilon_{n}}=g . X_{1}=S \cap S^{-1} . X_{0}=\{e\}$ for $e$, the identity in $G$. Therefore the set $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is an inverse system, which by Proposition 2.10 implies $\Gamma(G, S)$ is a tree.

Now we will prove that if $X$ is a tree, then $G$ is a free group with basis $S$.

We know by Proposition 2.7 that because $X$ is connected, $S$ generates $G$. Consider $F(S)$, the free group generated by $S$. Assume $G$ is not free. Every element of $F(S)$ corresponds canonically to an element of $G$ since $S$ generates both. Since $G$ is not free, there is at least one element $g \in G, g=s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{n}^{\epsilon_{n}}$, such that $g=e$, the identity in $G$. Let $g^{*}$ be one of these elements with minimal value of $n$. Then consider the set of elements of $G, H=\left\{e, s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}}, s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}}, \ldots, s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{n-1}^{\epsilon_{n-1}}\right\}$. Assume $s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{i}^{\epsilon_{i}}=s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{j}^{\epsilon_{j}}$ for some $0 \leq i<j \leq n-1$. Then $s_{i}^{\epsilon_{i}}=s_{i}^{\epsilon_{i}} \cdots s_{j}^{\epsilon_{j}}$, but this implies $e=s_{i+1}^{\epsilon_{i+1}} \cdots s_{j}^{\epsilon_{j}}$. We know that $j-i<n$, but this contradicts the minimality of $g^{*}$. Therefore, all the elements of $H$ are distinct except $e$ and $g$. This implies that $H$ projects injectively into $X$. Additionally, the vertices corresponding to $s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{i}^{\epsilon_{i}}$ and $s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{i+1}^{\epsilon_{i+1}}$ are adjacent, and the vertex corresponding to $s_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} s_{2}^{\epsilon_{2}} \cdots s_{n-1}^{\epsilon_{n-1}}$ is adjacent to the vertex corresponding to $e$. But then $H$ projects injectively into a cycle on $X$, which contradicts the fact that $X$ is a tree. Therefore there are no such elements of $G$, and $G$ is a free group.

## 6. Proof of Theorem

We can now prove our theorem. As stated above, the theorem is:
Theorem 6.1. A group is free $\Longleftrightarrow$ there exists a tree on which it acts freely.

Proof. Let $G$ be a free group with basis $S$. Then by Proposition $5.1 G$ acts freely on the tree $\Gamma(G, S)$.

Proving the other direction of the theorem requires a little more work. Let $G$ be a group that acts freely on a tree $X$. We will first choose from $G$ a particular set $S$ based on its tree of representatives. We will prove that it is possible to create the quotient graph $X / G * T$ by contracting each subtree $g T$ to a single point. Then we will prove $S$ is a basis by creating an isomorphism between $\Gamma(G, S)$ and the contraction of $X$. Since any such contraction of a tree is itself a tree, this will prove that $\Gamma(G, S)$ is a tree. We can then invoke our previous work.

Choose an orientation for $X$ by assigning each edge pair an origin and terminus so the orientation is preserved by the group action, in that if $g \in G$, and $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ is an oriented edge, then $\left(g y_{1}, g y_{2}\right)$ is an ordered pair in the edge set of $X$. Let $T$ be a tree of representatives of $X^{*}=X / G$ with the orientation induced by the orientation on $X$. Consider the set of edges of $X^{*}$ with origin in $T$, but terminus not in
$T$. Then the terminus is in $g T$ for some $g \in G$. Define $S$ to be the set of such elements $g \in G, g \neq 1$. First we will prove that $S$ is a basis for $G$ by showing $\Gamma(G, S)$ is isomorphic to a tree, and then invoking Proposition 5.1.

Consider the map $g \mapsto g T$ that maps $G$ onto the set of translates of $T$. Suppose $\exists p \in g T \cap g^{\prime} T$, for $g, g^{\prime} \in G$. Then $p=g t=g^{\prime} t^{\prime}$ for $t, t^{\prime} \in T$. So $t=g^{-1} g^{\prime} t^{\prime}$. Since $T$ is a lift of a tree of representatives, this implies $t=t^{\prime}$. Since $G$ acts freely, $e=g^{-1} g^{\prime}$, so $g=g^{\prime}$. Therefore $\forall g, g^{\prime} \in G$ and $g \neq g^{\prime}, g T \neq g^{\prime} T$. This shows that the map $g \mapsto g T$ is a bijection. Because $g \mapsto g T$ is a bijection, it is possible to form the graph $X^{\prime}=X / G * T$ by contracting each tree $g T$ to a single vertex $(g T)$. $X$ is a tree, so by Proposition $3.5 X^{\prime}$ is a tree.

Now we will show that $\Gamma(G, S)$ is isomorphic to $X^{\prime}$, which will show that $\Gamma(G, S)$ is tree. The inverse of the bijection $g \mapsto g T$ is a bijection $f: \operatorname{vert} X^{\prime} \rightarrow G . G$ is also the vertex set of $\Gamma(G, S)$. So $f: \operatorname{vert} X^{\prime} \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{vert} \Gamma(G, S)$ is also a bijection. We can give $X^{\prime}$ the orientation induced by $X$. Then the bijection can be extended to an isomorphism $f^{\prime}$ : $X^{\prime} \rightarrow \Gamma(G, S)$. We need to define the isomorphism on the edges of $X^{\prime}$. Since the trees $g T$ are contracted to points, the only edges in $X^{\prime}$ are the ones in $X$ that are not in $g T$ for any $g \in G$. Take ( $y_{1}, y_{2}$ ) to be an oriented edge in $X^{\prime}$. Then $y_{1}=(g T)$ and $y_{2}=\left(g^{\prime} T\right)$ for some $g, g^{\prime} \in G$. Then let $s=g^{-1} g^{\prime}$. There is an edge with origin in $T$ and terminus in $g^{-1} g^{\prime} T$, namely $\left(g^{-1} y_{1}, g^{-1} g^{\prime} y_{2}\right)$, so we know that $s \in S$. Define $f^{\prime}\left(\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right)=(g, g s)$. As shown earlier, $f: \operatorname{vert} X^{\prime} \rightarrow \operatorname{vert} \Gamma(G, S)$ is injective, so $f^{\prime}$ is injective. Let $(g, g s)$ be an edge of $\Gamma(G, S)$, for $g \in G$ and $s \in S$. By the definition of $S$, there are vertices of $T$ and $s T$ that are adjacent. Therefore there are vertices in $g T$ and $g s T$ that are adjacent, which implies $(g T)$ is adjacent to $(g s T)$ in $X^{\prime}$. Thus there is an edge of $X^{\prime}$ that $f^{\prime}$ maps to ( $g, g s$ ), which implies surjectivity. So $f^{\prime}$ is bijective, and therefore is an isomorphism.

We now have an isomorphism between $X^{\prime}$ and $\Gamma(G, S)$, and we have shown $X^{\prime}$ is a tree. Therefore $\Gamma(G, S)$ is a tree. By Proposition 5.1, $G$ is a free group.

Here is a useful corollary.
Corollary 6.2. If $X^{*}$ has a finite number of vertices s, and if $\left|e d g e X^{*}\right|=$ $a$, then $|S|-1=a-s$.

Proof. Let $E$ be the set of oriented edges $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ in $X$ such that $y_{1}$ is a vertex of $T$ and $y_{2}$ is not. By the proof of Theorem 6.1, there is a bijection between $E$ and $S$, which implies $|E|=|S|$. Let $T^{*}$ be the image of $T$ in $X^{*}$. Define $E^{*}$ similarly. Let $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ and $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$
be distinct edges in $E$. Then $x_{1}$ and $y_{1}$ are distinct vertices of $T$, and since $T$ maps isomorphically to $T^{*}$, there is no element of $G$ that maps one to the other. Therefore, in the quotient graph $X^{*},\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ and $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ must map to two distinct edges. This implies $|E|=\left|E^{*}\right|$. By definition, $T^{*}$ is a maximal tree, and $\mid$ vert $X^{*}|=|$ vert $T^{*} \mid$. Trivially, edge $X^{*}$ is the disjoint union of edge $X^{*} \cap e d g e T^{*}$ and $E^{*}$. Also, by Proposition 3.3, $\mid$ edge $T^{*}\left|-\left|v e r t T^{*}\right|=-1\right.$. If $|$ vert $X^{*} \mid$ is finite, then we have the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|e d g e X^{*}\right|-\mid \text { vert } X^{*} \mid & =\left(\left|e d g e T^{*}\right|+\left|E^{*}\right|\right)-\left|e d g e T^{*}\right| \\
& =\left|E^{*}\right|-1 \\
& =|S|-1
\end{aligned}
$$

## 7. Applications of the Theorem

First we can prove a theorem that was originally published in a paper by Otto Schreier, who would probably have made many other significant contributions to combinatorial group theory, had he not died in 1929 at the age of 28 .
Theorem 7.1. Every subgroup of a free group is free.
Proof. Let $G$ be a free group with basis $S$, and let $e$ be the identity for $G$. Then $G$ acts freely on $X=\Gamma(G, S)$, which by Proposition 5.1 is a tree. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$, then $H$ acts freely on $X$. By Theorem 6.1, $H$ is a free group.

We will look at another of Schreier's results, the Schreier Index Formula. First we need two definitions:

Definition 7.2. The rank $r_{G}$ of a free group $G$ is the cardinality of its basis.

Remark 7.3. To make this well defined, it is necessary to show that all bases of $G$ have the same cardinality. This is indeed true, and is not trivial to prove. I will not prove this here.
Definition 7.4. For a group $G$ the index of a subgroup $H,[G: H]$, is the number of left cosets of $H$ in $G$, where for $g \in G$, a left coset of $H$ is $g H=\{g h \mid h \in H\}$.

Now we have:
Theorem 7.5 (Schreier Index Formula). Let $G$ be a free group, and $H$ be a subgroup of finite index $n$ in $G$.

$$
r_{H}-1=n\left(r_{G}-1\right) .
$$

Proof. $G$ acts freely on $\Gamma(G, S)$ by Theorem 6.1. Take $\Gamma_{G}=\Gamma / G$ and $\Gamma_{H}=\Gamma / H$. Then let $s_{G}=\left|\operatorname{vert} \Gamma_{G}\right|$ and $a_{G}=\left|e d g e \Gamma_{G}\right|$. Define $s_{H}$ and $a_{H}$ similarly. Because $G$ acts freely on $\Gamma(G, S)$, for $x \in G, G \cong G x$ as $G$-sets. Therefore there are the same number of $H$-orbits in $G x$ as there are in $G$, which implies $s_{H}=n s_{G}$ and $a_{H}=n a_{G}$. Then by Corollary 6.2 , the following is true:

$$
r_{H}-1=a_{H}-s_{H} \text { and } r_{G}-1=a_{G}-s_{G}
$$

And since

$$
\begin{gathered}
r_{H}-1=a_{H}-s_{H}=n a_{G}-n s_{G}=n\left(a_{G}-s_{G}\right)=n\left(r_{G}-1\right) \\
r_{H}-1=n\left(r_{G}-1\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

## References

[1] Serre, Jean-Pierre. Trees. Springer-Verlag, 1980.

